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ABSTRACT

Increasingly, educational leaders have adopted human-resource approaches in school administration. The approach has facilitated the development of transformational leadership. This paper explores in detail the nature of leadership associated with a human-resources approach toward educational administration. The paper describes the theoretical basis of the human-resources approach, defines transformational leadership, examines valuable leader characteristics and effective leadership strategies, and describes the relationship of various theoretical subconstructs to transformational leadership. The subconstructs include vision, motivation, power, decision making, supervision, followership, organizational culture, organizational conflict, organizational change, and organizational learning. Evidence suggests that in effective schools, bureaucratic, mechanistic institutional structures are generally giving way to humanistic, participative modes of organizational behavior that result, in part, from the practice of transformational leadership. One figure is included. (Contains 25 references.) (LMI)

Transformational Leadership: Overview of a Human Resources Administrative Practice

by

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Introduction

Increasingly, educational leaders have adopted human resources approaches in administering schools. As a result, a relatively new form of leadership -- transformational leadership -- has emerged into practice. The administrator's choice of a leadership style depends largely upon his or her assumptions about the nature of organizations and the people in them. The leadership style exercised has important quality of life implications for group members since it will largely shape the organization's culture and be reflected in routine processes such as decision making, supervision, and organizational change to name only a few presently.

Currently there are two conflicting approaches to administrative practice: classical approaches and human resources approaches. The classical approach promotes rigid, centralized hierarchical structures characteristic of mechanistic organizations where order and rationality dominate. By contrast, the human resources approach views schools as characterized by:

> ...ambiguity and uncertainty in their fast-changing environments, unclear and conflicting goals, weak technology, fluid participation, and loose coupling of important activities and organizational units. Because of these characteristics, the core activity of educational organizations -- that is, teaching -- is not carried out under close surveillance of the administrative hierarchy, as classical thought would envision, but is coordinated and controlled more by the culture of the organization: its values, its traditions, and the norms of acceptable behavior established over time (Owens 1987, pp 35-36).

Owens (1987) predicted that the classical and human resource approaches would continue to compete for favor and legitimacy among educational leaders for years to come with the newer, emergent human resource approach becoming steadily more accepted because it meets contemporary conditions better. For Owens, the general "function of the administrator, then, is to

develop organizational structures that -- while providing clearly for such imperatives as coordination of effort toward goal attainment -- assure the development of more adaptive ways of integrating people, technology, task, and structure in a dynamic, problem-solving fashion (pp. 230-231)."

This paper will explore in detail the nature of leadership associated with a human resources approach towards educational administration. To understand this new type of leadership, its theoretical basis will be explored and described. That includes defining transformational leadership, examining valuable leader characteristics and effective leadership strategies, and describing the relationship to transformational leadership of various theoretical subconstructs (see Figure 1). In particular, this paper will address the following theoretical subconstructs of transformational leadership: (a) vision; (b) motivation; (c) power; (d) decision making; (e) supervision; (f) followership (g) organizational culture; (h) organizational conflict; (i) organizational change; and (j) organizational learning.

Figure 1. Tranformational Leadership and Various Related Subconstructs

Organizational Culture	*Organizational Conflict*	*Organizational Change*
Followership		*Organizational Learning*
	Transformational Leadership	
Supervision		*Vision*
Decision Making	*Power*	*Motivation*

Leadership

Starratt (1993) declared that leadership is essential for modern democratic institutions and societies because "without a broad base of people who think for themselves, engage in public debate about policies, and exercise responsibility for the quality of the life around them, institutions and societies lay themselves open to demagoguery and totalitarian rule (p. 14)." Burns (1978) articulated such a democratic participative view of leadership when he defined leadership as:

> ...leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations--the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations--of both leaders and followers... Such leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. (Burns 1978, pp. 19-20).

Hence, transformational leadership is a values based process involving the collective group. It aims to meet both individual and organizational needs and goals. It establishes a symbiotic relationship between leaders and followers especially as followers' needs and wants are understood and satisfied by the leader. Bennis and Nanus (1985) described this form of leadership as caustic:

> ...meaning that leadership can invent and create institutions that can empower employees to satisfy their needs. Leadership is morally purposeful and elevating, which means, if nothing else, that leaders can, through deploying their talents, choose purposes and visions that are based on the key values of the work force and create the social architecture that supports them (pp.217-218).

Transformational leadership contrasts sharply with the classical transactional view of leadership. Bass (1990) conceptualized transactional leadership as based upon contingent reward

and management-by-exception. That is, it is characterized by an exchange of rewards for compliance with agreed upon levels of performance, and leader intervention only if standards are not met or if something goes wrong. The following section presents lists of effective leader characteristics offered by several respected authors.

Leader Characteristics

Tichy and Devanna (1986) complied a list of characteristics that they believed transformational leaders shared. These traits distinguished transformational leaders from transactional leaders (who generally operate on the basis of a contingent reward system). Their list included the following characteristics:

1. They Identify Themselves as Change Agents.
2. They Are Courageous Individuals.
3. They Believe in People.
4. They Are Value-Driven.
5. They Are Life Long Learners.
6. They Have the Ability to deal with Complexity, Ambiguity, and Uncertainty.
7. They Are Visionaries (pp. 271-280).

When Bennis & Nanus (1985) described this new type of leader, they reinforced the importance of life long learning stating that "Leaders are perpetual learners...Nearly all leaders are highly proficient in learning from experience...Leaders have discovered not just how to learn but how to learn in an organizational context (pp. 187-189)."

Additionally, Covey (1989) suggested seven habits that when regularly practiced in concert result in highly effective people whether or not the person holds a leadership position. He

presented these seven habits as:

Habit 1 - Be Proactive: This means taking responsibility for our own lives; our behavior is a function of our decisions, not our conditions (principles of personal vision).

Habit 2 - Begin with the End in Mind: This means to approach your roles in life with your values and directions clear; rescripting oneself so that behaviors and attitudes are congruent with one's values and principles (principles of personal leadership).

Habit 3 - Put First Things First: It's the exercise of independent will toward becoming principle-centered (principles of personal management).

Habit 4 - Think Win/Win: It's not your way or my way; it's a better way, a higher way (principles of interpersonal leadership).

Habit 5 - Seek First to Understand, Then to Be Understood: This is the key to effective interpersonal communication (principles of empathetic communication).

Habit 6 - Synergize: The whole is greater than the sum of its parts; opening your mind and heart and expressions to new possibilities, new alternatives, new options (principles of creative cooperation).

Habit 7 - Sharpen the Saw: It's renewing the four dimensions of your nature -- physical, spiritual, mental, and social/emotional (principles of self-renewal).

From the two lists above, one can see that a strong sense of values, a commitment to continuous learning, and a guiding vision are essential key elements for practicing transformational leadership. Next, the strategies/processes in which transformational leaders engage themselves and the followership are described.

Leadership Strategies/Processes

Bennis and Nanus (1985) proposed a four step process by which a leader can successfully transform an organization's social architecture. Listed below and briefly described, they include:

1. **Attention through vision**: the management of attention through vision is the creating focus.
2. **Meaning through communication**: all organizations depend on the existence of shared meanings and interpretations of reality, which facilitate coordinated action; the management of meaning, mastery of communication, is inseparable from effective leadership.
3. **Trust through positioning**: trust implies accountability, predictability, reliability. Trust is the glue that maintains organizational integrity.
4. **The deployment of self** through (a) positive self-regard, and (b) the Wallenda factor: the management of self is critical...This creative deployment of self makes leading, ..., a deeply personal business... Positive self-regard consists of three major components: knowledge of one's strengths, the capacity to nurture those strengths, and the ability to discern the fit between one's strengths and weaknesses and the organization's needs.

Hodgkinson (1991) formulated a slightly more philosophical process as a means to exercise effective leadership. He promoted the idea that more congenial forms for educational organizations could be obtained enacting the analog of the extended family where tolerance and acceptance of diversity exists. Everyone is treated equitably, though not equally which implies that leaders must get to know their followers with great insight. Hodgkinson (1991) contended that "The central problem of administration ... is to reconcile the self-interest of the individual organization member or client with the collective interest of the organization... To make these interests converge upon the goals of the collectivity is to accomplish the core task of leadership (pp. 65 -66)."

Hodgkinson continued by stating that four practical implications for leadership exists. That is, four sets of value knowledge and experience are required for effective leadership which are:

> (1) knowledge of the task or mission (the aims, ends, goals, objectives, purposes, philosophy and policy of the organization); (2) knowledge of the

> situation within which that task must be accomplished; (3) knowledge of the subordinate and peer personnel who have to achieve the mission and carry out the task; (4) self-knowledge on the part of the leader, reflective scrutiny, value audit and confirmation...moral leadership is achieved when the administration maintains a productive tension between philosophy and action (pp. 83-84).

Using a familiar metaphor, Starratt (1993) likened the effective exercise of leadership to the unfolding of a social drama. The leader must be able to play various roles. For example, as the director the leader must have a larger sense of the drama being played so that meaningful unity of purpose can be achieved. The leader's vision must be grounded in "some core meanings which are central to human life (p. 145)." The leader is aided in this effort by being able to play the part and empathize with all of the other actors. As an educator, "the leader sees his or her primary task as influencing the way people in the institution *see themselves* and *see what they have to do* (p. 148)."

Starratt ultimately viewed the leader as responsible for encouraging the followership to create a collective vision of where they should be going. This can be achieved when the leader spends:

> ...a large portion every day engaging the minds and hearts of his or her constituents in examining how they are reproducing the status quo every day and how they might alter it in small ways to make the drama of their institution work better for the people it serves and who serve it. As they take up that task they are improving, in some small way, the larger social drama of history (p. 149).

Finally, Kouzes and Posner (1987) completed a brief list of the five fundamental practices that enable leaders to get extraordinary things done. Leaders who reflected on their personal best leadership moment stated having:

1. **Challenged the process**: Those who lead others to greatness seek challenges that

involve a change from the status quo.

2. **Inspired a shared vision**: Leaders breath life into what are the hopes and dreams of others and enable them to see the exciting possibilities that the future holds; the vision is the force that invents the future.
3. **Enabled others to act**: Leaders do not achieve success by themselves; they encourage collaboration, build teams, and empower others.
4. **Modeled the way**: Leaders act in ways that are consistent with their beliefs, they are persistent in pursuit of their visions, and they are always vigilant about the little things that make a big difference.
5. **Encouraged the hearts**: People become exhausted, frustrated, and disenchanted. They often are tempted to give up. Leaders must encourage the heart of their followers to carry on (pp. 8-12).

The foregoing lists highlighted effective leadership strategies suggesting that the leader ought to fashion a clear, concise personal vision prior to any attempts at engaging the followership in reflective practice and subsequent problem solving activities. A discussion of the importance of vision to leadership follows.

Vision

Vision is an important sub-construct of leadership. As previously noted, being able to develop and meaningfully disseminate a vision was an effective leadership strategy common to all the lists.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) devoted much space to the topic of vision and its role in the leadership process. They defined vision as:

> An image of a possible and desirable future state of the organization...a vision articulates a view of a realistic, credible, attractive future for the organization, a condition that is better in some important ways than what now exists (p. 89).

Starratt (1993) suggested that "contemporary leadership needs a new vision, fueled by

meanings central to human existence (p. 61)." In an educational context, the leader's general concern is to develop his school building into a learning community situated within the wider context of the general community. The vision suggested by Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) to guide this mission should be to:

> ...create a value framework that enables daily, routine activities to take on a special meaning and significance, making the school a *special* place, instilling feelings of ownership, identity, participation, and moral fulfillment (p. 195).

Developing a vision that honors group members needs is an important first step towards affecting organizational change; however, the leader must also articulate this vision among the followership in a coherent, intelligible manner. As Pondy (1978) commented, "This capacity to go public with sense making involves putting very profound ideas in very simple language. Perhaps that is why it is so rare (p. 95)."

Thus, leadership can be exercised in profound ways by formulating a vision. In a public and coherent manner, the leader must relentlessly communicate the vision. By instilling meaning and trust in their followers the leader enables the organization to build a culture around the vision. This culture would be characterized by much professional reflection and constant, innovative group as well as individual problem-solving. As Bennis and Nanus (1985) commented, "Vision animates, inspirits, transforms purpose into action (p. 30)." Senge (1991) concurred stating that a vision possesses powerful transformative potential because it can tap the source of creative energy itself which emanates from the unavoidable gap between one's vision of a better future and current reality.

Motivation

Before a leader can expect followers to truly "buy into" and work towards attaining a vision, proper motivation must exist. Leaders today must seriously attend to the intrinsic needs of individuals and devise corresponding motivational schemes. Followers no longer work in hopes of attaining and sustaining merely a subsistence level standard of living; abundance is relatively widespread and as such followers higher order needs must now be focussed upon (Zuboff, 1983).

"Motivation", according to Owens (1987), "is not a behavior: it is a complex internal state that we cannot observe directly but that affects behavior (p. 102)." Maslow's hierarchy of needs pyramid and Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation are two popular investigations into this important leadership sub-construct.

Maslow suggested that individuals join an organization, remain in it, and work toward its goals on account of a hierarchy of needs. After lower order needs are satisfied, higher-order needs appear. The new need has the greater potency causing the individual to attempt to satisfy it. Owens (1987) presented Maslow's hierarchy of needs as:

> **self-actualization** - to develop into what one is capable of becoming, autonomy, self-direction.
> **esteem** - Self-esteem and recognition by peers
> **social affiliation** - love, belonging, acceptance by others
> **security and safety** - physical safety, financial security
> **basic physiological needs** - food, water, shelter, sex, air (p. 109).

Herzberg suggested that motivation is composed of two separate independent factors: motivational factors, which can lead to job satisfaction, and maintenance factors, which must be sufficiently present in order for motivational factors to come into play. When maintenance factors

are not sufficiently present, they can block motivation and lead to job dissatisfaction (Owens 1987).

Herzberg (1966) offered three main ideas for anyone wishing to practice his theory:

1. *Enrich the job*, which involves redesigning the work that people do in ways that will tap the motivation potential in each individual. This would include making the job more interesting, more challenging, and more rewarding.
2. *Increase autonomy* on the job. The reader is specifically cautioned to note here that it was not suggested that complete autonomy be somehow granted to workers but that autonomy be increased. This suggests more participation in making decisions as to how the work should be done.
3. *Expand personnel administration* beyond traditional emphasis on maintenance factors. The focus of personnel administration should be on increasing the motivational factors present in the work (cited in Owens 1987, p. 116).

The transformational leader would view this research as suggestive that he or she ought to create or redesign positions that motivate those holding them and, thereby, increase their effectiveness or productivity. In fact, transformational leaders do customarily exercise these three points when interacting with their followership. Starratt (1993) contended this should be the case because:

> Leadership grounded in a profound grasp of meanings central to human fulfillment is able to infuse the work of institutions with those meanings, and thus to draw the allegiance of the other members of the organization toward those meanings and purposes (p. 63).

It is important to remember that the creation of such allegiance depends upon a values based vision and intrinsic reward system which unites individual and organizational needs. Burns (1978) pointed out that, "There is nothing so power-full, nothing so effective, nothing so causal as common purpose...Moreover, unity of purpose and congruence of motivation foster causal

influence far down the line (p. 439)."

Power

Power is another major sub-construct of leadership. Bennis and Nanus define power as "the basic energy to initiate and sustain action translating intention into reality, the quality without which leaders can not lead (p. 15)." In an analysis of power, French and Raven postulated its five sources as:

1. **legitimate** (position): The target person complies because he or she believes the agent has the right to make the request and the target person has the obligation to comply.
2. **reward** (position): The target person complies in order to obtain rewards he or she believes are controlled by the agent.
3. **coercive** (position): The target person complies in order to avoid punishments he or she believes are controlled by the agent.
4. **expert** (personal): The target person complies because he or she believes the that the agent has special knowledge about the best way to do something.
5. **referent** (personal): The target person complies because he or she admires or identifies with the agent and wants to gain the agent's approval. (cited in Yukl 1989, p. 35).

Complex implications for leadership stem from the leader's characteristic use of power. First, power itself is neither good nor evil; its value lies in how it is used (Burns, 1978). For this reason, effective leaders rely more on personal power (expert and referent) rather than positional power (legitimate, reward, and coercive) (Yukl, 1989). And third, the exercise of power is a social and psychological process that engages leaders with followers in multiple rather than one-way or even two-way flows of influence (Burns, 1978).

Hollander's (1979) social exchange theory described the highly interactive process by

which leaders gain and lose power over time:

> By demonstrating competence and loyalty to the group, a member influences the expectations of others about the leadership role he or she should play in the group. The person gains status and influence in the group and is allowed to have more influence over group decisions. The amount of status and influence is proportionate to the group's evaluation of the person's potential contribution relative to that of other members. Innovative proposals are a source of increased status and expert power when successful, but they will result in lower status and expert power if failure occurs and is attributed to poor judgement, irresponsibility, or pursuit of self interest (Hollander 1979 cited in Yukl 1989, pp. 27-32).

Thus, power is acquired through leader and followership interactions in which group loyalty and professional competence are the primary concerns.

Decision-Making

Griffiths (1959) conceived of decision making as the creation and monitoring of the processes through which organizational decisions and those by the leader will be made (cited in Owens 1987). The transformational leader attempts to create conditions within an organization that are consistent with the theory of human resources development rather than perpetuating the hierarchical, bureaucratic relationships that are still too characteristic of modern institutional life. Therefore, the transformational leader "supports the use of participative style in the management of decision making (Owens 1987, p 285)."

It is essential that the leader, as a key actor in the development of the culture of the organization, promote participative decision making to achieve more humane institutional conditions. Organizational decision making practices do not result from circumstance but rather

reflect the preference of those in authority concerned with how decisions ought to be made (Owens, 1987). Those preferences are related to the assumptions held by the administrators on various issues such as:

- what motivates people at work; the relative values of collaboration vs. directiveness in the exercise of leadership in the workplace;
- the desirability of a full flow of information up, down, and across the organization;
- the best ways of maintaining organizational control and discipline;
- the value of involving people throughout all levels of the organization in decision making (Owens 1987, pp. 264-265).

The transformational leader views the above assumptions from a human resource development perspective. He or she recognizes important implications stemming from one's philosophical orientation relative to these assumptions, and encourages "the organization to develop an *explicit, publicly known* set of processes for making decisions that is *acceptable to its participants* (Owens 1987, p. 277)."

Owens (1987) went on to describe the potential benefits from participative decision making and offered implementation suggestions:

> The use of participative decision making has two major potential benefits: (1) arriving at better decisions and (2) enhancing the growth and development of the organization's participants (for example, greater sharing of goals, improved motivation, improved communication, better-developed group-process skills). As a practical guide for implementing participative processes in educative organizations, three factors in particular should be borne in mind: (1) the need for an explicit decision-making process, (2) the nature of the problem to be solved or the issue to be decided, and (3) criteria for including people in the process (p. 277).

Davis (1972) defined participation as "the mental and emotional involvement of a person in a group situation that encourages the individual to contribute to group goals and to share responsibility for them (cited in Owens 1987)." From this definition, a sense of true ownership of

decisions is achieved for the participants as opposed to simply going through the motions. Through such a process, the individual experiences greater motivation resulting in a release of the participant's own energy, creativity, and initiative (Owens 1987). The fact that both individuals and the organization benefit from participative decision making provides strong justification for its use.

Supervision

In an educational context, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) conceptually defined supervision as "a process designed to help teachers and supervisors learn more about their practice; to be better able to use their knowledge and skills to better serve parents and schools; and to make the school a more effective learning community (p. 38)." From this definition, one can see that the interests of teachers, administrators, and the community are taken into account.

The purposes of supervision are achieved, stated Glickman (1990), through reflective practice and interaction. He wrote:

> ...supervision works to break up the routine, lack of career stages, and isolation of teaching and to promote intelligent, autonomous, and collective reason in order to establish a cause beyond oneself and to shape a purposeful and productive body of professionals achieving common goals for students (p. 40).

Instructional improvement can be thought of as "helping teachers acquire teaching strategies that increase the capabilities of students to make wise decisions in varying contexts (Glickman 1990, p. 82)." Programs designed to improve instruction by focussing on teaching strategies include: (a) professional reflective activity (Clift, Holland, and Veal 1990); (b)

collaboration in any one of many forms such as interdisciplinary teams, site based management plans, or teacher and university researcher field based studies; (c) action research (Noffke and Zeichner 1987) which stresses the value of developing good habits in observing and critiquing teaching practice early in one's career; (d) clinical supervision (Cogan 1973) that emphasizes open communication upon teaching practices; and (e) coaching (Joyce and Showers 1982) in which fellow teachers observe one another trying out newly learned teaching models. These activities would result in greater student learning too, since "effective teachers think about what they are currently doing, assess the results of their practice, and explore with each other new possibilities for teaching students (Glickman 1990, p. 55)."

Supervision that promotes reflective inquiry serves a formative function. It emphasizes continuous improvement and the development of quality. Deming (1993) was quick to mention that you can't inspect quality into a process or product; it must be there by conscious design in the early planning stages. Similarly, one day when schools abandon the practice of inspectorial supervision, Sergiovanni (1992) proclaimed that, "Supervision would then emerge from within educators rather than being externally imposed, ending forever supervision as we now know it" (p. 205). As a consequence, leaders would gain precious, valuable time to carry out other important administrative functions leaving staff largely responsible for their continuous, professional development and improvement.

Followership

Kelly (1992) contended that leaders contribute no more than an average of 10-20% to

most organization's success. The followership comprise the vast human entity of any organization and, therefore, are responsible for the other 80-90% of the organization's success. To lead effectively, leader's must be aware of and nurture the special symbiotic relationship that exists between the leader and followers. Burns (1978) pointed out that, although leaders exercise various kinds of power, they also engage with followers to achieve significant goals of the followers as well as their own. In plain language, Burns stated that, "Leadership over human beings is exercised when persons with certain purposes mobilize, in competition or conflict with others, institutional, political, psychological and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers (p. 18)."

Consistent with this idea is the special relationship that followers desire with their leader. Kelly (1992) maintained that:

> Exemplary followers do not want leaders who decide their work or their fate for them. They want leaders who view them as partners in shaping the enterprise...Unless explicitly negotiated otherwise, partners are viewed as equals. As equals, they decide how to work together, to share power, and to reward individual and joint contributions so that the partnership succeeds (p. 203).

To make this unique symbiotic relationship materialize, much trust must be demonstrated by the leader and followers alike. Bennis and Nanus (1985) view trust as "the emotional glue that binds followers and leaders together. The accumulation of trust is a measure of the legitimacy of leadership (p. 153)." From the followership's perspective, Kelly (1992) added that:

> The ultimate test of leadership is the quality of the followers. Exemplary leaders attract exemplary followers. As co-adventurers, they embark on a worthwhile journey together. They rely on each other to arrive there safely and successfully (p. 229).

Through this symbiotic relationship between the leader and followers, Burns (1978)

claimed that "*Real* leaders--leaders who teach and are taught by their followers--acquire many of their skills in everyday experience, in on-the-job-training, in dealing with other leaders and with followers (p. 169)." The flow of influence is multiple, not simply two-way. Burns (1978) asserted that "leaders and followers exchange roles over time and in different political settings. Many persons are leaders and followers at the same time (p. 134)."

For a successful symbiotic relationship, then, leaders should embrace exemplary followers as partners or co-creators and demonstrate the value that they as leaders add to followers' productivity. In essence, leaders should create environments where exemplary followers flourish and strive to be more of a hero maker than a hero (Kelly, 1992). The organization as a whole would benefit as group members would develop followers who are competent, credible, and committed to the organization and to a purpose beyond themselves.

Organizational Culture

Schein (1985) defined culture as a pattern of basic assumptions, invented, discovered, or developed by a given group that is the result of coping with problems of external adaption and internal integration that has worked over time, well enough to become valid and therefore taught to the members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to these problems. Chin (1967) pointed out that through normative-re-educative strategies of change, culture (attitudes, beliefs, and values) can be deliberately shifted to more productive norms by collaborative action of the people who populate the organization (cited in Owens 1987).

Starratt (1993) suggested that cultural leadership "is exercised not so much by scientific

management as by guarding essential values of the culture, by reminding people in the organization of the essential meanings of the culture, by promoting rituals and celebrating which sustain those essential meanings and values of the organization (p. 5)."

In an educational setting, the power of culture is demonstrated each time a new teacher joins an existing faculty. Owens (1987) describes the process as follows:

> The culture of the educational organization shapes and molds assumptions and perceptions that are basic to understanding what it means to be a teacher. The culture informs the teachers as to what it means to teach, what teaching methods are available and approved for use, what the pupils or student are like -- what is possible, and what is not. The culture also pays a large role in defining for teachers their commitment to the organization and what it stands for, emotional willingness not only to follow the rules and norms governing their behavior in the organization but, more than that, to accept the ideals of the organization as their own personal values and, therefore, to work energetically to achieve the espoused goals of the organization (p. 28).

The foregoing demonstrates that the "central mechanism through which the organization exercises coordination and control is the socialization of participants to the values and goals of the organization, rather than through written rules and close supervision (Owens 1987, p 47)." Through intense socialization the individual identifies personally with the values and purposes of the organization and is motivated to see the organization's goals and needs as being quite similar to his or her own. Therefore, the culture of the organization embodies not only what the organization stand for but also the aspirations of the individual participants themselves. Reminiscent of Getzels and Guba's (1958) classic work, Hodgkinson (1991) wrote, "To make these [individual and organizational] interests converge upon the goals of the collectivity is to accomplish the core task of leadership (pp. 65-66)."

Newly socialized individuals become members of a set of persons who have a long history

of sharing common experiences. These shared experiences have led the group members to create a shared view of the world and their place in it. Owens (1987) elaborated upon the significance of a group's shared view of the world:

> This shared view enables people in the organization to make sense of commonplace as well as unusual events, ascribe meaning to symbols and rituals, and share in a common understanding of how to deal with unfolding action in appropriate ways... Such a shared view is developed over a period of time during which the participants engage in a great deal of communication, testing, and refinement of the shared view until it is eventually perceived to have been so effective for so long that it is rarely thought about or talked about any more: it is taken for granted. This constitutes the development of an *organizational culture*. And it is culture that largely determines how one literally perceives and understands the world; it is the concept that captures the subtle, elusive, intangible, largely unconscious forces that shape thought in a workplace (p. 274).

Symbolically, leaders organize their time and energies to provide a unified vision of the school to teachers and students. They communicate what is important, valued, and desired. Leaders who build organizational culture engage in constructing reality for others. These leaders actively:

> ...spend time articulating the purposes and the mission of the school; they socialize others to these values; they define and redefine the uniqueness of the school; they develop systems of symbols that reinforce this uniqueness and make sure that the symbols are highly visible; they reward those who accept and reflect the norms and values of the school (Owens 1987, p. 161).

Equally important, leaders must be role models who pay attention to what they believe is important; they must show others through their behavior that they themselves actively live their values (Kouzes and Posner, 1987).

In the end, people become bonded to the organization. They acquire faith in and become committed to the organization. They come to realize that they are a part of an important and

worthwhile mission larger than themselves.

The interaction of organizational culture with the leadership exercised is significant. Organizational culture creates a powerful environment which reflects past experiences, and distills them into simplifications that help to explain the complex world of the organization for its members. The organization is in essence a body of thought evolved over time and that guides the administrator in understanding what is going on and how to deal with it. "In this view, therefore, the culture of the organization represents significant thinking prior to action and is implicit in the decision-making behavior of administrators (Owens 1987, p 274)." That is, leadership processes are embedded in the culture of the organization shaping it and, in turn, being shaped by the culture.

Organizational Conflict

Conflict is an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce rewards, and interference from the other party in achieving their goals (Hocker, 1985). With this conceptual definition in mind, we turn to means by which to manage conflict.

Thomas (1976) proposed five types of conflict management approaches:

1. *Competitive* behavior is the search to satisfy one's own concerns at the expense of other if need be...it is a high competitive-high uncooperative orientation. The effect is domination of the situation...It is the classic win-lose view of conflict.
2. *Avoidant* (unassertive-uncooperative) behavior is usually expressed by apathy, withdrawal, and indifference. This does *not* mean that there is an absence of conflict but that it has been conceptualized as

something not to deal with. Hence, the latent conflict remains and may be viewed differently at another time.

3. *Accommodation* (high cooperativeness-low assertiveness) is typified by appeasement: one attends to the other's concerns while neglecting his or her own. This orientation may be associated with a desire to maintain a working relationship even at some sacrifice of one's own interests.
4. *Sharing* orientation (moderate assertiveness-moderate cooperativeness) often leads to compromise (trade-offs, splitting the difference, horse-trading).
5. *Collaborative* orientation to conflict (high assertive-high cooperative) leads to efforts to satisfy fully the concerns of both parties through mutual problem solving. The solution to the conflict is a genuine integration of the desires of both sides. The concept is win-win. (cited in Owens 1987, pp. 256-257).

Because avoidance and accommodation/appeasement are really non-management strategies of conflict, only three basic general strategies for dealing with conflict are left: collaboration, bargaining, or power.

The effective management of conflict is an essential skill for the leader since as Burns (1978) observed, "The potential for conflict permeates the relations of humankind, and that potential is a force for health and growth as well as for destruction and barbarism (p. 37)." This shows that the leader is necessarily involved with conflict. Burns (1978) commented further that, "Leaders, whatever their professions of harmony, do not shun conflict; they confront it, exploit it, ultimately embody it (p. 39)."

Since conflict is inevitable, diagnosis of each situation is required before action is taken. When managing conflict it is important "to consider (1) alternate ways of managing conflict and (2) the kinds of situations in which each of these various alternatives might be expected to be the most effective, not only in dealing with the critical issues but also in doing so in a way that strengthens the organization (Owens 1987, p. 254)." For the transformational leader, a

collaborative process would be the most likely option selected.

Collaboration involves the conflicting parties in working together to define problems and engage in mutual problem solving. This process requires that people will give the requisite time and energy to participate, and will additionally possess: "(1) the necessary skills for communicating and working in groups, effectively coupled with (2) attitudes that support a climate of openness, trust, and frankness in which to identify and work through problems (Owens 1987, p.255)."

There is no one best way for managing conflict in organizations though healthy organizations are able to identify conflict and deal with it collaboratively due to their well-developed problem-solving mechanisms and a collaborative climate. This approach will leave the organization stronger and more well-developed rather than weakened and plagued with hostility following attempts to deal with organizational conflict. Ultimately, the basic principle in choosing a way of managing conflict is to use the approach most likely to minimize the destructive aspects (e.g., hostility) and to maximize the opportunities for organizational growth and development (e.g., to develop greater trust, to improve problem solving, etc.) (Owens 1987).

Organizational Change

Owens (1987) conceptually defined change as the process of planned systematic shift of organization goals looking to alter behavior. Chin (1967) stated that there are three useful orientations in planning and managing change: (1) empirical-rational strategies, (2) power-coercive strategies, and (3) normative-reeducative strategies. As mentioned above, the

normative-reeducative strategies of change posits that culture (attitudes, beliefs, and values) can be deliberately shifted to more productive norms by collaborative action of the people in the organization (cited in Owens 1987).

The normative-reeducative strategy bases producing change in schools on improving their problem-solving capabilities as organizations. To do so, the school's cultural normative values must be shifted from one's typical of hierarchical (bureaucratic, mechanistic classical) organizations to norms supportive of creativity and problem-solving. This process is commonly referred to as organizational self-renewal. "Techniques and processes for bringing about organizational self-renewal focus on developing increased skills among the staff members of individual schools in studying and diagnosing their own organizational problems systematically and in working out solutions to them (Owens 1987, p. 238)."

Organizational renewal emphasizes that effective change cannot be externally imposed on an organization. Instead, there is an internal capacity for continuous problem solving that should be nurtured and developed. Owens (1987) described the renewal process as including the increased capacity to (1) sense and identify emerging problems; (2) establish goals, objectives, and priorities; (3) generate valid alternate solutions; and (4) implement a selected alternative. Owens continued:

> An outcome of renewal processes is to shift the culture of the school from emphasis on traditional routines and bureaucratic rigidity toward a culture that actively supports the view that much of the knowledge needed to plan and carry out change in schools is possessed by people in the schools themselves. Further, it recognizes the optimal unit for educational change is the single school with its pupils, teachers, principal -- those who live there every day -- as primary participants' (Owens 1987, p 223).

Effective organizational development adheres to a systems approach. It is based upon the

concept of the organization as a complex sociotechnical system. Such a view of the organization emphasizes the wholeness of the organizational system and the dynamics of its component subsystems: human, structural, technological, and task.

An organic system as opposed to a mechanical system emphasizes a different approach to managing the system. Organic organizational systems are recognizable by the following characteristics:

1. Continuous reassessment of tasks and responsibilities through interaction of those involved, with functional change being easy to arrange at the working level;
2. Coordination and control through interaction of those involved, requiring considerable shared responsibility and interdependence;
3. Communication with external environment relatively extensive and open at all levels of the organization;
4. Emphasis on mutual confidence, consultation, and information sharing -- up and down, laterally, and diagonally across the organization -- as the basis of organizational authority;
5. Team leadership style, featuring high levels of trust and group problem solving; and
6. Wide sharing of responsibility for decision making at all levels in the organization (Owens 1987, p. 79).

By contrast, mechanical systems operate from a traditional, classical viewpoint (as differentiated from a human resources perspective) heavily emphasizing rationality and technology (rather than social systems concepts). Mechanical organizations primarily base their system of management on the following:

1. Highly differentiated and specialized tasks with precise specification of rights, responsibilities, and methods;
2. Coordination and control through hierarchical supervision;
3. Communication with the external environment controlled by the top offices of the hierarchy;
4. Strong, downward-oriented line of command;
5. One-to-one leadership style emphasizing authority-obedience relationships;

6. Decision-making authority reserved for top levels of the hierarchy (Owens 1987, pp. 79-80).

Regardless of the type of organization considered, Argyris (1964) suggested that to be effective the organization must accomplish three essential core activities over time: "(1) achieve its goals; (2) maintain itself internally; and (3) adapt to its environment (cited in Owens 1987, p. 221)."

In essence, for organizations to increase their survival potential, they must constantly transform themselves; that is, they must constantly learn. Bennis and Nanus (1985) described this process of organizational learning as: "The entire system learns as it obtains feedback from the environment and anticipates further changes. At all levels, newly learned knowledge is translated into new goals, procedures, expectations, role structures, and measures of success (p. 192)". Senge (1990) echoed the view that organizations should resemble learning organizations in order to sustain competitive advantages when confronting new changes and opportunity. A detailed look at the characteristics of a learning organization are presented in the next section.

Organizational Learning

Kramlinger (1992) defined a learning organization as "a large body of aligned individuals whose members at all levels spontaneously learn and innovate in ways that promote the well-being and mission of the organization (p. 48)."

In such an environment, leadership that is proactive in its problem-solving orientation and that values creativity at all organizational levels is essential for increasing its readiness to cope

with new changes and opportunities. Stata (1989) viewed organizational learning as the principal process for management innovation and commented that "the rate at which individuals and organizations learn may become the only sustainable competitive advantage, especially in knowledge-intensive industries (p. 63)."

Senge's (1990) book, The Fifth Discipline, brought national attention to the topic of organizational learning. Senge (1990) outlined five disciplines whose practice, he claimed, would result in the creation of a learning organization. They are: (1) systems thinking, (2) personal mastery, (3) mental models, (4) shared vision, and (5) team learning. Of the five disciplines, systems thinking holds the other four disciplines together keeping them from becoming gimmicky. By practicing the five disciplines, organizational members should generally be more motivated and committed at all levels. They should expand their capabilities to learn, become more effective workers, and enable the organization to sustain a competitive advantage.

Organizational learning is best understood by briefly considering the individual components of Senge's five part (1990) rubric. First, systems thinking helps group members see dynamic organizational patterns in full and, thereby, enables individuals to effectively reinforce or change those patterns. Second, personal mastery involves clarifying and deepening one's vision, focussing one's energy, developing patience, and seeing reality objectively. Third, mental models are our subconscious, deeply held world-view lens through which we make sense of observed events and are directed to act. Fourth, a shared vision results when images of a better future are presented and generate group member engagement as opposed to simple compliance. And lastly, team learning occurs when group members suspend their individual assumptions of reality to consider as a group solutions to problems or future directions to follow .

Learning organizations are viewed as organizations with greater general adaptability. However, Senge (1990) emphasized that increasing an organization's adaptiveness was only the first step toward creating a learning organization. He believes that in addition to adaptive learning which focusses on coping, learning is also a creative process of expanding our capabilities. Senge called this process generative learning. Bronowski (1973) captured the essence of generative learning well when he wrote:

> We have to understand that the world can only be grasped by action, not by contemplation... The most powerful drive in the ascent of man is his pleasure in his own skill. He loves to do what he does well and, having done it well, he loves to do it better (cited in Bennis 1989, pp. 145-146).

Most important, generative learning requires individuals to look at the world in new ways, to view action from a systemic perspective. Only then can underlying problems be detected and addressed in a way that is fundamentally different from treating symptoms of underlying problems in an adaptive manner.

In learning organizations, leaders must exercise new leadership skills as they take on the new roles of designers, teachers, and stewards. In Senge's (1990) words:

> These roles require new skills: the ability to build shared vision, to bring to the surface and challenge prevailing mental models, and to foster more systemic patterns of thinking. In short, leaders in learning organizations are responsible for *building organizations* where people are continually expanding their capabilities to shape their future -- that is, leaders are responsible for learning (p. 9).

Regarding the above quote, Senge (1990) believes that leadership in a learning organization begins by fostering creative tension. The natural tension caused by juxtaposing an organization's vision with a clear view of its reality is the source of creative energy. Also, the leader as a teacher goes beyond merely working with mental models to reveal hidden

assumptions; he or she helps individuals reconstruct their views of reality enabling them to detect underlying causes of problems and affect the formation of a new, better future. Finally, leaders help others think in systemic terms as opposed to isolated events or patterned behavior when they offer individuals structural level explanations. In this way, underlying causes are dealt with at an analysis level such that patterns of behavior can be changed.

The emergence of learning organizations may signify an important evolutionary step for organizational cultures. Therefore, leaders must develop new, requisite leadership capabilities in order to create such learning organizations. Senge (1990) argued that these leadership skills should be widespread throughout the organization and that leadership development is embodied in the practice and understanding of the five disciplines.

Summary

This paper examined the nature of leadership associated with a human resources approach towards educational administration. The theoretical base undergirding tranformational leadership was addressed by defining transformational leadership, listing valuable leader characteristics and effective leadership strategies, and describing the relationship to transformational leadership of various theoretical leadership subconstructs. The particular theoretical subconstructs of transformational leadership discussed included: (a) vision; (b) motivation; (c) power; (d) decision making; (e) supervision; (f) followership; (g) organizational culture; (h) organizational conflict; (i) organizational change; and (j) organizational learning.

Evidence suggests that in effective schools, bureaucratic, mechanistic institutional

structures are generally giving way to humanistic, participative modes of organizational behavior which result, in part, from the practice of transformational leadership. When a human resource development approach to educational administration is taken, the organization's synergistic potential is enhanced to cope with new changes or to take advantage of new opportunities. Significant benefits are derived when the needs of group members, the organization itself, and the community at large coincide and are met. Schools as institutions are increasingly meeting such needs by nuturing the potential of their human resources present within the organization.

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